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JOHN A. ROGERSON
BEQUEST
1965

OR,

THE ELEMENTS

OF

ENGLISH GRAM

ON A PLAN

ADAPTED TO THE MODE OF INSTRUCTION

SCHOOLS CONDUCTED ON

INTELLECTUAL PRINCIP

BY W. M'INTYRE, A. M

One of the Teachers of Messrs. M'Inty

Lauriston, Glasgo

Gifted by
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Dumfriesshire
1965

PREFACE.

In the following pages it is attempted to convey to the understanding of the learner, by a clear and simple statement, a distinct idea of the elements of Grammar. It is not wished that the words of the definitions and rules be committed to memory—what is thought most for the learner's advantage is, by understanding these rules and definitions, to form an accurate conception of the truths which they contain, and to exercise his memory in retaining the knowledge thus acquired. Accordingly, the great brevity which is the boast of some is here industriously avoided, because it does not compensate by the assistance it gives to memory for the veil it throws over the meaning and the hinderance which it consequently occasions to the successful exercise of the judgement.

The rules of syntax offered simply exhibit the principles by which the use of words is regulated. This being their character, the number of them is necessarily small.

In addition to this statement of principles, remarks are interspersed which contain information on such points as seemed to require particular attention. Throughout the whole, care has been taken that no rule should be given or information communicated, which might appear to supersede the exercise of judgment, or be calculated to impress the idea that the learner did not require to *think for himself*. Unless the learner always take care to think with accuracy, and attend strictly to the meaning of the words which he employs to express his thoughts, any rules that c be given will be of little use to him. For learnin

rks of good authors.

ull account of the views entertained upon
be found in the introductory observations
tering upon this department of Grammar
selection of detached sentences for exercis
s on the different parts of the text is not a
is book, because it is considered more ben
loy for this purpose a piece of connected
. The opportunity furnished to call the
ntion to the connexion of sentences with o
as well as to that of words, will readily s
as an important advantage attending th
ich we recommend. It also prevents th
book from being unnecessarily swoller
ce of it proportionably increased.

As this book may come into the hand
ho are unacquainted with the method o
rammar which may be regarded as the m
one to which the plan we h

able question may be asked by the teacher; as, Whether is it singular or plural? What number is it? Whether does it denote one or more than one? if one be the answer, let it be asked; What number denotes one? and again; What number then is this noun?—naming the word; What it would be if a different number? Sec. xiii. may again be read, and the children then required to tell the gender immediately after the number. It may be done in the common way or in the way recommended in the Section referred to. Here also the teacher may have recourse to questions to lead on the children if he find cause. After the distinction of gender is understood, the sections which treat of the formation of the plural may be read in succession, and such questions put to the learners as suit the knowledge which they are known to have acquired on this subject. Nothing will be said of the cases till the children are sufficiently advanced for being made acquainted with the principles of syntax by which the use of them is regulated.

Articles come next. In regard to these let Sec. xvii. be read. Then let the children be exercised a little on articles alone, and afterwards on articles and nouns together. Let it be told whether the article under consideration is *definite* or *indefinite*, to what noun it refers.

In regard to adjectives, which are next to be attended to, Sec. xviii. may be read. At first, the learner need only mention, when an adjective meets him, that it is one, and tell what noun it *qualifies*. He may soon read Sec. xix. Afterwards, when he can distinguish *adjectives* accurately, and point out the nouns which *they qualify*, let him read Sec. xx. and xxi. Then *will tell* further what degree of comparison each adjec*tive is*; and, in answer to questions put by the te

he will compare each adjective, and tell how its comparative and superlative are formed.

Pronouns follow next. Sec. xxiv. After stating that the pronoun before him is one, let the pupil tell what number it is, and what it would be if a different number; let him tell also what noun it stands for. Sec. xxv. and xxvii. ought to be read soon afterwards. The other sections on pronouns may be omitted till the pupils are farther advanced.

Verbs and Participles are next to be attended to. (xxvi. xxvii.) After the learner is able to distinguish verbs, let Sec. xli. be read, and then, when the teacher sees that the verb under consideration is indicative mood, let him ask what mood it is. Let sec. xliii. be next read, and the two following sections as soon as it may be found convenient. At this stage of their progress, when a verb meets one the children, after stating that it is one, let it be required that the mood be told. Let sec. xxxix. be now read which will enable the learner to see the tense. Sec. xxxviii. may now be read, and questions asked suiting the information which it contains. Let sec. xlvi. be next read, and then participles also pointed out, and a proper account given of them according to what is stated in the above section. The parts of the verb as given in sec. xlvii. may now be committed to memory. Sec. xlix. may now be attended to; or the different rules which it contains may be referred to as verbs occur to which they apply. Sections l. li. ought to be committed to memory as soon as possible.

It may here be remarked that, in parsing, one word *only ought to be* taken at a time. In the combination *of words,* '*I have* read,' which are usually called one *part of speech,* '*have*' ought to be taken by itself, as a *verb, indicative* mood, present tense, singular number

ber, first person; 'read' is a participle, the past: again, in the combination, 'I may read,' 'may' is a verb; &c. 'read,' a verb, infinitive mood, present tense. It is the same as 'I may *to* read.' The expressions 'shall, will, would, should, must, &c. read,' are expressions of the same character. See sec. xlviii.

Prepositions may be taken next. Sec. lvii.

The cases of nouns and pronouns may now be considered; and the learner be made aequainted with sec. lxvi. rules i. iii. iv. sec. xv. xvi. and such other parts of the text, that were before omitted, may now be attended to.

Adverbs, Conjunctions, and Interjections come next to be considered in their order.

The foundation being laid by the previous exercises, it will be less material in what order the rest is taken.

Some errors escaped notice in corrrecting the press. The reader will mark the following:

Page	4,	*line*	8,	*for* benifico	*read*	becafico.
—	4,	—	30,	— ?	—	;
—	5,	—	25,	— anthesis	—	antithesis
—	14,	—	18,	— ! *after John,*	—	,
—	23,	—	17 & 18,	— attendest	—	attendedst
—	45,	—	3.	— XL.	—	LX.

Some errors which I regret to find in the punctuation will I hope cause no embarrassment to the reader, though it is inconvenient to notice them here more particularly.

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INTELLECTUAL GRAMMAR

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ADAPTED TO THE MODE OF INSTRUCTION PURSUED IN SCHOOLS CONDUCTED ON

INTELLECTUAL PRINCIPLES.

BY W. M'INTYRE, A. M.

One of the Teachers of Messrs. M'Intyre's School, Lawrieston, Glasgow.

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

GLASGOW:

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1831.

PART I.

OF NOUNS.

'he names of all things are nouns.
you speak or think of, the word u
te it will be a noun. In order t
n a noun, just say the name of an
ee, or know

pretty;' 'The smallness of the book makes it fit for the pocket;' *colour*, the name of what is pretty, and *smallness*, the name of what makes it fit for the pocket, are both nouns.

II. Nouns are divided into *common* and *proper*. A *noun common* is one which denotes any individual of the kind; as, *man, city*: a *noun proper* marks out one from the rest of the kind or class to which it belongs; as *George, Edinburgh*.

III. But we do not always speak of single things. We have frequent occasion to speak of two or more things of the same name together, and then, instead of repeating the name for each of them, we say it only once, but make it a little different from what it would be if only one were meant. For example, you say 'There is a *book* on the table,' when there is only one; but when there are more than one, you say, 'There are *books* on the table.' Thus nouns have two *numbers*, as they are called, the *singular* and the *plural*. A noun is in the *singular number* when it denotes only *one*; as, *book*: and in the *plural* when it denotes *more than one*; as, *books*. *Proper nouns*, let it be observed, generally want the plural.

IV. It may be observed, the plural, books, formed by adding *s* to *book*, the singular d this is the general way of forming t

plural; as, *pen, pens*; *bird, birds*; *tree, trees*; *hand, hands*.

V. All nouns, however, do not form their plural in the way now mentioned. Ist. To nouns of such a termination that *s*, added to form the plural, could not be pronounced, or at least not easily, we add *es*, which makes a syllable. For example, though to *miss* you add *s* for the plural, making it *misss*, the name of the word remains the same; and, consequently, the plural thus formed could not be distinguished, by the ear, from the singular: therefore *es* is added, which makes *misses* the plural of *miss*. Nouns of this description are those which end in *s*, *x*, *sh*, and *ch*, when it is pronounced as in chur*ch*; but when it sounds like *k*, then *s* can be pronounced after it in the same syllable; and therefore only *s* is added; as, *monarch*, *monarchs*.

VI. It may be here remarked, that in nouns which end in silent *e*, with consonants before it which are pronounced with a sibilant or hissing sound, the *s* added for the plural with this silent *e* forms a syllable; as, horse, hors-*es*; *orange, orang-es*; *age*, ages; race, race:

VII. 2d. Es is also added for the plural *some nouns* ending in o; as, hero, heroes. *The reason* of this seems to be, that, as the o.

lowed immediately by the consonant *s* in the same syllable, ought to be pronounced as in *not*, the *e* between it and the *s*, may, as it were, enable it to retain its open name sound, (the sound it has in *so*,) which is the one it ought to have. This provision has not been made in the case of outlandish words, and such are more rarely used. These usually form their plural by simply adding *s*; as, *folio, canto, benifico.* All nouns in *io* are of this class.

VIII. 3d. To form the plural of some nouns ending in *f*, with or without silent *e* after it, we put its kindred letter, *v*, in place of *f*, and of silent *e*, (if there be one) and then add *es*; as *wife, wives*; *leaf, leaves.* Other nouns in *f*, form their plural in the general way, by adding *s*; as *reproof, grief.* The plural of all nouns in *ff* is formed by adding *s*; as *muff, muffs*; but *staff* has sometimes *staves.*

IX. 4th. Nouns ending in *y*, with a consonant before it, form the plural by changing *y* into *i*, and then adding *es*; as, *lady, ladies*; *body, bodies.* But, when *y* is preceded by a vowel, it is not thus changed; as, *boy, boys*; *day, days.*

X. 5th. Several nouns form their plurals irregularly; as, *man, men*; and, in like manner, its compounds, *woman, husbandman, &c.*; *ox, oxen*; *child, children*: brother, brothers and *brethren*; *foot, feet*; tooth, teeth; goose, geese? *die*, (for gaming,) dice; die, (for coin.

ing,) *thes*; *mouse*, *mice*; *louse*, *lice*; *penny*, *pence* or *pennies*; *sow* or *swine*, *sows* or *swine*. *News*, though plural, is used as if it belonged to the singular; and so most commonly is *means*. *Brace* and *dozen* are not changed for the plural, except when the individuals composing the number of two or more denoted by the plural, are regarded as detached; as, 'He killed partridges in *braces*;' 'The glutton ate eggs in *dozens*;' 'Several single *braces*'. Most adjectives denoting number are pluralized in this way; as, 'I made them captains over tens.'

XI. The following list contains words adopted from Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, which, with the exceptions noticed, form the plurals after the manner of these languages. Thus, 1st. arcanum has arcana *in the plural*; datum, data. *In the same manner we form the plural* of animalculum; effluvium, encomium, erratum, medium, memorandum, stratum. *But* encomium and memorandum *have their plurals also formed in the English manner by adding* s. 2d. Automaton has automata; criterion, criteria; phænomenon, phænomena. 3d. Stamen *has* stamina; genus, genera. 4th. Anthesis *has* antitheses; basis, bases; and so crisis, diaeresis, ellipsis, emphasis, hypothesis, metamorphosis, axis. 5th. Appendix *has* appendices or appendixes; calx, calces; vortex, vortices; index, (of *Algebraic quantity*) indices; index, (a pointer or *of contents*) indexes; 6th. Radius has radii; *magi*; genius, (*a tutelar spirit*) genii; genius, (*son of superior powers of mind*,) geniuses. 7th,

has cherubim *or* cherubs; seraph, seraphim *or* seraph s. 8th. Lamina *has* laminæ. 9th. Apparatus, hiatus, series, species, *are the same in the singular and plural.*

The words in the 2d class are adopted from the Greek, those in the 7th from the Hebrew, and all the rest from the Latin language.

XII. I may just mention that there are some nouns which have no plural; but the cause of this is, that we do not speak of more than one such thing as they denote, and not any stintedness in the nature of the words themselves. As *gold* means the whole of that metal, we have no occasion to use it in the plural. In the same way, as *goodness* means all that quality, we do not say *goodnesses.* There are also nouns which have no singular; as, *ashes, riches, &c.* Of these are such names of sciences as *metaphysics, mathematics, optics, pneumatics.*

XIII. That part of the character of nouns, which arises from their denoting *males*, or *females*, or *things* regarded as *neither* male or female, is termed *gender.* Nouns which denote *males*, are said to be of the *masculine gender*; those which denote *females*, are said to be of the *feminine gender*; and those *which denote* things *without life*, or things *regarded as* neither *male* or *female*, are said *o be of the neuter gender.* But the only thing *onnected with* gender which it is necessary

to observe in English grammar, is, that, in using the third-personal pronouns, we substitute *he* for a noun denoting a *male*; *she* for one denoting a *female*; and *it* for one denoting a *thing without life*: thus, 'I see a *man*, and *he* has a whip;' 'Call *Jessy* in, for *she* is cold;' 'Be sure to read the *Bible*; *it* is the best book in the world.'

XIV. It is usual to remark, in treating of gender, that, in the English language, there are three different ways made use of to mark whether it is *male* or *female* that is meant. The 1st is, to use different words; as, *husband*, to denote the male, *wife*, to denote the female; and so, *lord*, *lady*; *nephew*, *neice*; and many others. The 2d is, to make the distinction by different terminations; as, *actor*, denoting the male, *actress*, denoting the female; so, *administrator*, *administratrix*; *bridegroom*, *bride*; *landgrave*, *landgravine*; *marquis*, *marchioness*; *widower*, *widow*, &c. And the 3d way is, to prefix a word denoting the sex; as, *a cock-sparrow*, *a hen-sparrow*; *a man-servant*, *a maid-servant*; *a he-goat*, *a she-goat*; *a male child*, *a female child*.

Instead of the enumeration of words usually given under the two first of the above heads, I would just caution the reader against ever using a word without being sure of its meaning, and knowing, among other things, whether it denotes *male* or *female*, or *either* without distinction. *Widower*, means a man who *has lost* his wife, and not a woman who has lost her *husband*; and therefore it is an error to use it for *latter*, nor will any thus use it who attends to meaning. Some words denote male or female without distinction; as *parent*, child.

esented in the
s the pony;' 'John's pony is sold:
y kicked John.' In the first of thes
ces, John is *named* and pointed out
a certain thing, as riding; in the s
a *possessor*; and in the third, as the
the action which the pony perfor
at the action of kicking is done to.
cordingly have different *cases*, as tl
lled, expressive of these different
he case expressive of the first of th
which John is represented, is terr
minative; that expressive of the sec
ossessive; and that expressive of tl
he *objective*. The noun John has th

OF ARTICLES.

XVII. There are two or three little words, used in connexion with nouns, to which we may now attend. These are *the* and *an* or *a*, and they are called *articles*. *The* is termed the *definite article*, because it is used when we speak of a thing definitely or distinctly from others, as, 'The man that I saw yesterday, met me to-day.' A particular man is here spoken of. *A* and *an*, again, we call the *indefinite* articles, because we use them when we speak of a thing in a general sense, without defining it, or marking it out from others; as, 'A man met me.' It is not said what man. In regard to the use of *a* and *an*, it is to be remembered that *an* is used before words which, in pronunciation, begin with the sound of a vowel; *a* before such as do not; as, *an* arm, *an* eye, *an* island, *an* oar, an hour; *a* pen.

OF ADJECTIVES.

XVIII. The words which we employ in connexion with nouns to express the *qualities* we ascribe to the things which the nouns denote, to shew *what* kind of things they are, *how* many there are of them, and the, are called *adjectives*. When I say, 'I

white bird,' *bird* is the name of the animal saw, and therefore, a noun, and *white* is an adjective joined to that noun to express *what kind* of bird it was. It was a *white* one. 'I saw *two white* birds;' here *two* also is an adjective, shewing how many of them I saw. 'A *bad* boy is a *bad* companion:' here the adjective *bad* is joined to the noun *boy*, to show *what kind* of boy we speak of, and, in like manner, to *companion*, to show *what kind* of companion a bad boy is.

XIX. Nouns are often placed before other nouns in the character of adjectives; as, *cotton* cloth, *silver* spoons. Adjectives, on the other hand, are frequently used as nouns. The adjective *good* is so in the following sentence: 'The labours of one man are often productive of much *good* to a whole community.' Here *good* is used absolutely, and requires no noun, as it means all to which the term *good* can be applied, so far, at least, as the circumstances of the case admit. Adjectives are thus used in such expressions as the following: *in general, at least.*

XX. By attending to the following remarks, *the character of* adjectives will be farther understood. '*My* father is an old man; my *grandfather is older*; Methuselah lived to the *oldest* man of whom we have any

ossess it. In the next sentence, *old* simply tha
) express that 'my grandfather'
ie quality spoken of in a higher de
ny father,' and again we have *old*
ote that Methuselah possessed t
ality in the highest degree. Thu
es have three degrees, the *positive*
ive, and *superlative*. In the exam
nsidered, *old* is the positive, *older* t
ative, and *oldest* the superlative.
y be seen that the *comparative* de
ned by adding *er* to the positive, a
rlative by adding *est*. But when
ve ends in *e* mute, there is only *r*
the *comparative*, and *st* for

When *y* is preceded by a vowel, it is not thus changed; as, *gay, gayer, gayest*; *coy, coyer, coyest.*

Here the *y* is combined into a diphthong with the vowel before it, and thus sufficiently secured from going into the final syllable, and assuming the character of a consonant. It will be remembered, that in regard to this also *y* was treated in a similar manner in forming the plural of nouns ending in that letter, with a vowel before it.

3d, In adjectives of one syllable, ending in a single consonant, with a single vowel before it, the last consonant is doubled before *er* and *est*; as, *fit, fitter, fittest.*

Though the adjective consisted of more than one syllable, if the accent or stress of the voice in pronunciation were on the last syllable, the same would take place.

The reason of thus doubling the last consonant seems to be, that it may be discernible to the eye that the vowel before it has its *short* sound, and is not rendered long and open by final silent *e* in the positive. If it were thus rendered long and open, there would be only a single consonant before *er* and *est*. The foundation of this remark will be seen by attending to the manner in which *trite* and *fit* are respectively compared, and to the sound of *i* in each of them; *trite, triter, tritest*; *fit, fitter, fittest.*

XXII. When an adjective consists of more than two syllables, instead of er and est being added, as just explained, *more* is put before the adjective, to supply the place of the co

parative degree, and *most* to supply the place of the superlative; as *beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.* When an adjective consists of two syllables, *er* and *est* may be added, or *more* and *most* put before it; but adjectives of two syllables, ending in *y* or silent *e*, are always compared by *er* and *est.* When an adjective is a word of one syllable, it is compared by *er* and *est.* These distinctions, however, are sometimes intentionally disregarded for purposes of emphasis, expressiveness, and the like; and indeed the observance of them is all a matter of sound. Let it here be observed, that *more beautiful*, or *more* joined in the same way with any other adjective, ought not to be called the comparative degree. *More*, in such combinations, is an adverb, being as much a distinct word as it is in any other situation. It is so also with *most*, in *most beautiful*, &c.

XXIII. The following adjectives are compared irregularly.

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Good	better	best
Bad, evil, and ill	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much and many	more	most
Late	later	latest and la[illegible]
Near	nearer	nearest & n[illegible]
Far	farther	farthest
Fore (of limited use)	former	foremost & [illegible]
Old	older & elder	oldest & [illegible]

though not themselves the na
are used instead of nouns. Fr
so used, they are called *pronou*
find two of them in the follow
'John has a new book; he bou
John and *book* are both noun
the name of the person who h
the name of what he has: but in
part of the sentence, we find *he*
and *it* for *book*. '*He* bought *it*
stead of '*John* bought *the book*.'
are pronouns. 'Catharine is a
she reads well;' *she* is put fo
Catharine is a noun; *she*, a pron
you see that I am busy;' *you* is

second; and *he, she, it, they*, of the third; and all these are called *personal pronouns.*

XXVI.

First personal pronoun.			*Second personal pronoun.*		
	Singular.	*Plural.*		*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nom.	I	we	*Nom.*	Thou	you *or* ye
Poss.	Mine	ours	*Poss.*	Thine	yours
Obj.	Me	us	*Obj.*	Thee	you

Third personal pronoun.

		Singular.			*Plural.*
Mas.	*Nom.*	He			
	Poss.	His			
	Obj.	Him		*Nom.*	They
Fem.	*Nom.*	She			
	Poss.	Hers		*Poss.*	Theirs
	Obj.	Her			
Neu.	*Nom.*	It		*Obj.*	Them
	Poss.	Its			
	Obj.	It			

XXVII. *Who, which,* and *that,* are called *relative pronouns,* because they may be said to *relate* or *refer* to a noun or pronoun going before, rather than to be put instead of a noun. The noun or pronoun *going before,* to which they refer, is called the antecedent. *Who* is applied to persons, *which* to the low animals, and to inanimate things; *that* is v without this distinction. The following

tences exemplify these remarks: 'The *man who* was here yesterday is dead;' 'The *horse which* I bought runs well;' The *man that*, &c. The *horse that*, &c.

XXVIII. *Who* is thus declined in the singular and plural,

Nom. Who. *Poss.* Whose. *Obj.* Whom.

Which also is the same in both numbers, and has in the nominative and objective, *which*; and for its possessive, *whose* is used by the best writers, and this use of it is become more prevalent. But if we wish to avoid *whose*, we may employ *of which* instead of the possessive.

XXIX. When *who* is used in asking a question, we find no antecedent to it expressed; but we may restore it to its usual situation, by supplying before it *Tell me the person*, or *persons*. For example, *Who broke the window?* is made in this way. *Tell me the person* (or *persons*) *who*, &c. The most natural account of it is, however, that the idea in the enquirer's mind is that of a *person* or *persons*, in other words, it is a *person* or *persons* that he has in his thoughts, and therefore he says, *Who, &c.?* *Which*, in asking questions, is used as an adjective, having a noun expressed or understood. *What* is always an adjective.

Who, which, and *what,* are called *interrogatives,* when used in asking questions.

XXX. Mr. Lennie and others call *what* a compound relative in such sentences as the following, 'This is *what* I wanted;' because it may be resolved into a relative and its antecedent; thus, 'This is the the thing which I wanted;' and in, 'I know not by *what* fatality the adversaries of the motion are impelled,' and in such sentences, they call it an adjective; but the attentive reader may see that it is an adjective in the one case as really as in the other. The only difference is, that, in the former expression, the noun with which it is joined is not expressed; 'This is what I wanted,' that is, This is what *thing* I wanted. If what an expression may be resolved into were of any weight in this matter, then *what fatality,* in the latter of the two sentences quoted, might be called a compound relative, for these two words may be resolved into a relative and its antecedent; thus, I know not the *fatality* by *which,* &c.; and as for their being two separate words, it is usual with grammarians to treat even three words, though always written and printed separately, as if they were but one! The absurdity of the idea of a compound relative may be seen from what is said, in the following section, of other words thrown into this class by the grammarians above referred to.

XXXI. *Whoever, whosoever, whoso, whichever, whichsoever,* whatever, whatsoever, belong to the class of pronouns. Some call these compound relatives, and others indefinite, or indeterminate pronouns. The

appellation seems more appropriate, if any such distinction should be made.

They are called compound relatives, I believe, because they are equal in meaning, each of them to a relative and its antecedent; but this, on the contrary, furnishes a cause why they ought not to be called relatives at all, either compound or otherwise, in as much as it renders their nature such that they cannot relate to nouns or pronouns as relatives do.

Whoever strictly means *who at any time*, and is equivalent to *every person who*. *Whosoever* is made up of three distinct words, and its original import may be seen by attending to the meaning of these: '*Whosoever* committeth sin, transgresseth also the law;' that is, *who, so* it *ever* is, (or *such* is *always* the case) committeth sin, &c. *Whoso* is merely an abbreviation of *whosoever*, and they are each of them equal to *every person who*, like *whoever*. The other words in the above list are formed in the same manner. They are all expressive of a general indefinite idea.

The last four of them are used as adjectives.

XXXII. There are several adjectives which are classed by grammarians with pronouns, as 1st, *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*, *own*, called *possessive* pronouns,—2d, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, called *distributive* pronouns,—3d, *this*, *that*, called *demonstrative pronouns*,—4th, *some*, *none*, *any*, *all*, *whole*, *one*, *both*, *other*, *another*, *such*, called *indefinite pronouns*. But I am aware of no useful purpose which can be served by thus dis-

tinguishing them from each other, and from other adjectives.

XXXIII. It may here, however, be observed, that *that*, used as an adjective, becomes *those* when joined to a plural noun, expressed or understood; and *this*, *these*. *That* is reckoned an adjective when joined to a noun expressed or understood, as it is in the following sentence; 'I know *that* man.'

Other has *others* in the plural, when not joined to a noun; as, '*others* may do it.' When joined to a noun, it is not thus changed; as, '*other* persons may do it.'

XXXIV. To the list of pronouns are to be added, *myself*, which has in the plural *ourselves*; *thyself* and *yourself*, in the plural, *yourselves*; and *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, in the plural, *themselves*. These, in both numbers, want the possessive case, and are the same in the objective as in the nominative.

XXXV. While we are treating of pronouns, it may be not improper to consider the claim which *as* prefers to be, in certain situations, considered as one of them. Mr. Lennie tells us that "*as* is often used as a Personal or Relative pronoun, and in both numbers;" and he gives as an example of this use of it, "His words were as follow." If as is here used a pronoun, it is not only "often" used so, but is ver used as any thing else. It is used in exactl same way in the following expression, in w

a pronoun:-It is *as* I wished:
which I wished. This is the
s in the sentence above quoted:
follows;" that is, His words
follows, and not, His words
so, as Mr. Lennie makes it.
r or *mode* of the "words," not
as "those which" would do.
ne *manner* or *way*, in which the
as to constitute identity, and
this sameness is intended to
entity, does not affect our in-
oncerned to know is, what the
ren strictly analyzed, will be
hat is the sameness of *mode* or
spoken of being in the *way* or
or is exhibited in the following

[redacted]

OF VERBS.

XXXVI. The classes of words, which we have hitherto considered, would serve but few of the purposes of language. The following is such a sentence as could be formed of them; 'John a good scholar, he his lesson.' That this is defective must be immediately observed; but the defect will be removed by introducing two words; as follows: 'John *is* a good scholar, he *learns* his lesson.' It will require little thought to discover that these two words, *is* and *learns*, belong to none of the four classes or kinds of words which have been considered; namely, nouns, articles, adjectives, pronouns. The learner who is not able to see this, does not yet understand what he has left behind, and would do well to turn back to it before he proceeds further.

XXXVII. 'Is,' in the sentence given above, points out 'John' as *being*; and 'learns,' in the same sentence, points out the person for whose name 'he' is put, that is, 'John,' as *doing* or *acting*. Words which thus point out things as *being* or *doing*, are called *verbs*.

The term *verb*, which means the same as *word*, is applied to them, because they are of such importance in language, that there is at least one of them in every complete sentence.

In the following sentence there are several verbs, which the learner may try to distinguish as he reads it; "And David put his *hand in* his bag, and took thence a stone *and slang it*, and smote the Philistine in *forehead*, that the stone sunk into his

g or *doing*, is called the [illegible]
oun or pronoun expressing the subj
alled the nominative to the verb.
entence quoted at the close of the le
ion, 'David' is nominative to the verl
and, in like manner, to the verbs
'slang,' 'smote'; 'stone' is the non
to 'sunk,' and 'he,' a personal pron
for 'Philistine,' is nominative to 'fel
the learner understand what is mean
subject and nominative of a verb b
proceeds.

XXXIX. John *attends* very clos
lesson *at present*; here, 'attends' i
for it points out 'John' as doing.
[illegible] points out

he attended yesterday :' *attends* is the present tense, *attended* the past tense.

XL. But we do not always say *attends* for the present tense, or when we speak of the present time, or *attended* for the past tense. In the present tense, we use *attend* when the nominative is *plural*, and when it is *first person*, though *singular*. Thus we say 'I attend', not 'I attends,' and, in like manner 'we, you, they attend.' But we say, 'Thou attendest:' here the nominative, 'thou' is *singular* and *second person*. When the nominative is *singular* and *third person*, we say *attends*; as, 'John attends', 'he attends.' In the *past tense* again, we always say *attended*, but when the nominative is *singular* and *second person*; then we say *attendest*; 'Thou attendest,' 'I, he, we, you, they, attended.' Thus verbs have three *persons*, First, Second, Third, according to the person of their nominatives. Unless the learner distinctly remembers what was formerly said of person, let him read again section 25.

XLI. In the sentence; 'John attends;' the verb is used simply to *indicate*, declare, or state, that 'John' does a certain thing: 'John attends;' it is simply stated that he *does so*. The verb is used in the same way in the sentence, 'John attended:

when a verb is thus used, it is said to be in the *Indicative mood*; that is, in the *declaring mode* or *manner*. Let the learner read this account of the Indicative mood with care, again and again, till he has formed a clear and distinct idea of what it contains.

XLII. It may here be noticed, that verbs in the indicative mood frequently occur in such situations, as render it less obvious that they are used to *declare* or *state*. 'Arrived' is thus situated in the following sentence:—'Immediately after I *arrived* in town, I called upon my friends:' here *my arrival in town*, is not *declared* with the view of informing of that fact, and may therefore, at first sight, appear not to be declared at all, yet it will require no great attention to see that it is declared, though the declaration of it is made by the words 'immediately after,' to serve only for marking the time at which my calling upon my friends took place. 'Called,' in the sentence considered, is very plainly in the indicative mood. 'I *know* that he *writes* well;' in this sentence the leading fact *declared*, is *my knowing* a certain thing mentioned, but '*that he writes* well,' is also declared as the *fact which* 'I know:' 'know' and 'writes' are *both in the* indicative mood. So is 'writes' *in the following* question: 'Who *writes* well?

Here there is what may be called an *interrogative* declaration; the fact is declared, by way of query, with the desire of ascertaining whether or not it is so.

XLIII. There are also other modes in which verbs are used. We have in the following sentence an example in the verb 'attend' of what is termed the *subjunctive* mood; 'John will be a good reader in course of six months, if he *attend* as he has done for the last week.' 'Attend' and the words combined with it are *subjoined* to the declaration contained in the preceding part of the sentence, to express the supposition upon which it is made: 'John will be a good reader if he *attend*.' Thus verbs in the subjunctive mood always express something *subjoined* to what is expressed by other verbs to which they have a reference, and bringing it down from a general unlimited state, to apply only to the circumstances or case pointed out by those verbs in the subjunctive mood, and the words joined with them.

XLIV. When, as in the following expressions, a verb is used to *command*, *request*, or the like, it is said to be in the imperative *mood*: '*write* your copy;' 'read your lesson;' '*make* haste;' '*come* hither;' 'lend me your *book*.'

XLV. What is called the *infinitive* mood, is, as it were, the *name* of what the verb means, the *simple* expression of it, as, *to write, to read, to make, to come, to lend.* It is called infinitive, because it is not limited or confined by persons or numbers.

XLVI. Besides these four moods, Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive, verbs have two other parts, called *Participles.* This name is given to them, because they *partake* of the nature of verbs and of adjectives. The one is called *the Participle present,* the other, *the Participle past.* They are joined to nouns like adjectives. The participle present describes the thing denoted by the noun to which it is joined, as, at present, *in the state of being or doing*; the participle past describes the thing to which it refers, as *in the state of being or having some action done to it,* at a past time: 'James was *writing* a letter; and now the letter is *written.*' 'Writing' is the participle present, 'written,' the participle past. When participles are placed before the nouns, to which they are joined, they seem to assume more of the character *of adjectives,* and are generally treated as *such by* grammarians; as, *a* persevering man *a broken heart.* The participle present is used *as a noun,* called a *participial* noun.

XLVII. The different parts of the verb which we have now described, are as follows. Let us take, as an example, the verb, *to attend.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *person, I* attend	1. *We* attend
2. *Thou* attendest	2. *You* attend
3. *He* attends *or* attendeth	3. *They* attend

Past Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *I* attended	1. *We* attended
2. *Thou* attendedst	2. *You* attended
3. *He* attended	3. *They* attended

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *If I* attend	1. *If we* attend
2. *If thou* attend	2. *If you* attend
3. *If he* attend	3. *If they* attend

Past Tense.

Same as the Past Tense of the Indicative Mood.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2. Attend *thou*	2. Attend *ye* or *you*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To attend

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Attending Past, Attended.

XLVIII. All the parts of a regular English

are exhibited in the preceding section. But it may be proper to inform the learner, that most grammarians ascribe to verbs several tenses, and at least one mood, that are not given in the above paradigms. They give under the indicative mood, in addition to the tenses found above, the perfect, I *have attended*, and the pluperfect, *I had attended*; the future, *I shall* or *will attend*; the future perfect, *I shall* or *will have attended*. They give also a *potential* mood in the following tenses; the present, I *may* or *can attend*; the past, I *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should attend*; the perfect, *I may* or *can have attended*; the pluperfect, *I might*, *could*, *would*, or *should have attended*. To these may be added a perfect participle, *having attended*; and a perfect tense in the infinitive mood, *to have attended*. I have excluded these and such others, on the ground that they are not *modifications* of the verb, but *combinations of words*, of which the verb is one. The consideration of the combination of words belongs to a part of grammar still before us. For the reason here assigned, the whole *passive voice* is excluded, in addition to the parts above specified; but for the learner's satisfaction, we may here mention its different parts. They are the following:—indicative mood, present tense, *I am attended*, &c.; past tense, *I was attended*; perfect, *I have been attended*; pluperfect, *I had been attended*; future, *I shall* or *will be attended*; future perfect, *I shall* or *will have been attended*; potential mood, present tense, *I may* or *can be attended*; past, *I might*, &c. *be attended*; perfect, *I may have been attended*; pluperfect, I might, &c. *have been attended*; *subjunctive mood*, present, If *I* be attended; past, If *I were attended*; infinitive mood, Be thou attend &c.; *infinitive*, present, *to be attended*; partic[illegible] [illegible]esent, *Being attended*; past, *Been attended*; [illegible]t, *having been attended*.

XLIX. In conjugating verbs, or varying them through their different moods and tenses, let the following rules be observed :—

1st, verbs ending in *s*, *sh*, *ch*, *x*, or *o*, add *es*, to form the third person singular of the Indicative ; as, I *dress*, he *dresses* ; I *wish*, he *wishes* ; I *march*, he *marches* ; I *fix*, he *fixes*.

We saw that a similar rule is observed in forming the plural of nouns of the above terminations, and what was assigned as the cause of its observance applies equally here.

2d, Verbs ending in silent *e*, instead of *est*, *eth*, *ed*, add only *st*, *th*, *d* ; and drop *e* before *ing* ; as, I *use*, thou *usest*, he *useth*, I *used*, *using*.

And it may be noticed, that, as happens also in the plural of nouns, when a verb ends in silent *e*, and the name of it terminates with a hissing sound, the silent *e*, with the *s* added to form the third person singular of the Present Indicative, forms a syllable ; as, I *use*, he *uses*.

3d, Verbs ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* before *est*, *es*, *eth*, *ed* ; as, I *try*, thou *triest*, he tries or trieth, I tried. *Y*, preceded by a vowel, is not thus changed as I *pray*, thou *prayest*, he prays or prayeth I *prayed*.

The ground of this rule is the same as was pointed out in treating of the comparison of adjectives ending in *y*.

The verbs *lay*, *pay*, *say*, form exceptions, having in the past tense, and past participle, *laid*, *paid*, *said*.

4th, Verbs of one syllable, or having the accent on the last syllable, which end in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double the last consonant before all terminations beginning with a vowel, as, I *blot*, I *regret*, thou *blottest*, thou *regrettest*, he *blotteth*, he *regretteth*, I *blotted*, I *regretted*, *blotting*, *regretting*.

The rationale of this rule also, is the same as was suggested in regard to a similar rule for the comparison of adjectives.

5th, *Ie* is changed into *y* before *ing*; as, *die*, *dying*, *lie*, *lying*.

L. The different parts of the verb, *To be*, are as follows:—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
I am	1. We are
Thou art	2. You are
He is	3. They are

Past Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *I* was	1. *We* were
2. *Thou* wast	2. *You* were
3. *He* was	3. *They* were

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *If I* be	1. *If we* be
2. *If thou* be	2. *If you* be
3. *If he* be	3. *If they* be

Past Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *If I* were	1. *If we* were
2. *If thou* wert	2. *If you* were
3. *If he* were	3. *If they* were

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2. Be *thou*	2. Be *ye* or *you*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To be

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being *Past*, Been.

LI. The few following verbs require o
attention, as being irregularly inflected;
do, have, shall, will, may, must, ought.

CAN.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *I* can	1. *We* can
2. *Thou* canst	2. *You* can
3. *He* can	3. *They* can

Past Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *I* could	1. *We* could
2. *Thou* couldst	2. *You* could
3. *He* could	3. *They* could

The rest not used.

Shall, Will, May, are varied in like manner

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

I shall, *Thou* shalt, *He* shall, &c.
I will, *Thou* wilt, *He* will, &c.*
I may, *Thou* mayst, *He* may, &c.

Past Tense.

I should, *Thou* shouldst, &c.
I would, *Thou* wouldst, &c.
I might, *Thou* mightst, &c.

TO DO.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *I do*	1. We do
2. *Thou dost or doest*	2. You do
3. *He does, doth, or doeth*	3. They do

* *Will, to exercise volition,* is regular.

Past Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *I* did	1. *We* did
2. *Thou* didst	2. *You* did
3. *He* did	3. *They* did

It is not defective; that is, it has all the parts of a verb.

TO HAVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *I* have	1. *We* have
2. *Thou* hast	2. *You* have
3. *He* has, or hath	3. *They* have

Past Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. *I* had	1. *We* had
2. *Thou* hadst	2. *You* had
3. *He* had	3. *They* had

This verb also is not defective.

Must is not varied: we say, *I must, Thou must,* and so on. It seems to be of the present tense only. *Ought* is used as the present and past; and is thus varied:—*I* ought, *Thou* oughtest, *He* ought, &c.

LII. A verb that forms its past tense, and past participle, by adding ed or d to the present is said to be *regular*: a verb that does

thus form them is said to be *irregular*. Of irregular verbs, we subjoin the following list:—

R annexed to the irregular form given, shews that the verb has also the regular form.

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle.*
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Awake	awoke R	awaked
Bear, *to bring forth*	bore, bare	born
Bear, *to carry*	bore, bare	borne
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent R	bent R
Bereave	bereft R	bereft R
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
Bind	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke	broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	built	built
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught R	caught R

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle.*
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, *to split*	clove, cleft	cleft, cloven
Cleave, *to stick* or *adhere*, is regular.		
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clothed	clad R
Come	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Crow	crew R	crowed
Creep	crept	crept
Cut	cut	cut
Dare *to venture*	durst	dared
Dare *to challenge*, is regular		
Deal	dealt R	dealt R
Dig	dug R	dug R
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Drink	drank	drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt R	dwelt
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen,
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle.*
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborn
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	got, gotten*
Gild	gilt R	gilt R
Gird	girt R	girt R
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven R
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang *to suspend*	hung	hung
Hang, *to take away life by hanging*, is regula		
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Hew	hewed	hewn R
Hide	hid	hidden, hi
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held	held
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Knit	knit R	knit R
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led

* *Gotten* is nearly obsolete: *forgotten*, is

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Parti*
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, *to lie down*	lay	lain
Load	loaded	laden R
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown R
Pay	paid	paid
Put	put	put
Quit	quit R	quit
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	rode, rid
Ring	rang, rung	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn R
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	seethed, sod	sodden
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set	set	set
Shake	shook	shake

Show, shew	showed shewed	sl
Shoe	shod	sh
Shoot	shot	sh
Shrink	shrank, shrunk	s
Shred	shred	sh
Shut	shut	sh
Sing	sang, sung	su
Sink	sank, sunk	su
Sit	sat	sa
Slay	slew	sla
Sleep	slept	sle
Slide	slid	sli
Sling	slang, slung	slu
Slink	slunk	slu
Slit	[illegible]	[illegible]

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Partici*
Spread	spread	spread
Spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stank, stunk	stunk
Stride	strode, strid	stridden
Strike	struck	struck, strick
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strow, strew	strowed strewed	strown, strov
Swear	swore, sware	sworn [stre
Sweat	sweat	sweat
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen R
Swim	swam, swum	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore	torn
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	throve	thriven
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden
Wax	waxed	waxen
Wear	wore	worn

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle.*
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Work	wrought R	wrought R
Wring	wrung	wrung
Write	wrote	written

LIII. In section 47, I gave the Imperative Mood only the second person; and it is rarely that it occurs in any other. But that it does sometimes occur in the third person I am fully persuaded, nor is the contrary doctrine in the least established by the argument, "that no man can command any except the person to whom he speaks." For the use of the Imperative Mood does not necessarily imply commanding at all. The nature of it is this—the verb is employed in its radical uninflected state, to convey the idea of *being* or *acting*, simple or modified, according to its import, but without any expressed reference of such *being* or *acting* to a *subject*. It merely expresses or names it, as what occupies the mind of the speaker. But *being* or *acting* is not expressed by it *abstractly* or *substantively*, but under a *verbal* character, or as it is the nature of a verb to express it.

Being or *doing* being thus expressed, the speaker's intentions or wishes in regard to it can be only inferred or conventionally understood, and the subject to which *in his own mind* he refers it, (though this reference is *it be not* expressed by the form of the verb employed) *is discovered* by its *being* spoken to, and its name *mentioned*, or the second personal pronoun used *it*, or, *if it be* not spoken to, by its name being u
'f, then [illegible] *being* that being or d

as expressed by a verb used in its uninflected state, should be exhibited in a subject *spoken of*, and if this can be intimated, by using in connexion with a verb in that state, a word denoting such a subject, without any thing more, then the Imperative Mood can have the third person.

The fallacy of the argument above mentioned, is demonstrated by the practice of other languages, which undeniably have the third person of the Imperative. It is all a question of fact. We have an instance of the third person of the Imperative in the verb "hear," as used in Psalm xx. 1. "The Lord hear;" or as the metrical version authorised by the Church of Scotland gives it, "Jehovah hear thee." That it can be paraphrased, "May the Lord hear," argues nothing: "Hear thou," may in like manner be paraphrased, 'Mayst thou hear.' This argument, therefore, if it proved any thing, would prove more than those who employ it wish. It would leave us no imperative at all.

LIV.—Verbs are distinguished by grammarians into *active*, *passive*, and *neuter*. Those verbs are called active which point out their subject as *acting*, or *doing*; when the subject is pointed out as acted upon, the verb is called passive; and when the subject is pointed out as *being*, or performing an action not passing to an object, the verb is called *neuter*. The distinction of active *voice* and passive *voice*, is the same as that of active and passive verbs. Passive verbs are merely the form which active verbs assume in the passive voice; therefore, according to the classification which we have followed, there will be no passive verbs, because we have expunged the passive voice.

OF ADVERBS.

LV. In the following sentence, we have one of a class of words that we have not hitherto considered; 'the boy writes *well*.' Here 'well' is used in connexion with 'writes' to express a certain circumstance of the action which that verb denotes. 'The boy' is not only said to 'write,' but to write in a particular manner. 'The boy writes *well*.' Words of this description are called *adverbs*, because they are most commonly joined *to verbs*. But they are used also in connexion with adjectives and other adverbs. 'The boy writes *very* well; he is *extremely* clever;' 'very' is an adverb, joined to 'well,' to shew *in what degree* or *to what extent* the *manner* of acting which 'well' expresses is that in which 'the boy writes;' 'extremely' also is an adverb, shewing in what degree the 'boy is clever;' 'extremely' is joined to the adjective 'clever.' Thus, as adjectives express qualities of things, so adverbs express the qualities of what the verbs, adjectives, or adverbs to which they are joined denote. The qualities which they express are those arising from *time, place, manner, degree.*

Some adverbs are compared; as often, *oftener, oftenest; wisely*, more wisely, most *wisely.*

LVI.—Prepositions are usually called adverbs, when they have no regimen, i. e. when they have no noun or pronoun after them in the objective case. There is no good ground for this. I would just call them prepositions, as in other cases, noticing at the same time that they had no regimen. Adjectives also having a preposition before them, and without a noun expressed or obviously understood to which they are joined, are, together with preposition before them, called adverbs: as, *of late, in common.* Why not call 'of' a preposition, 'late' an adjective, remarking at the same time, that it is *absolutely* used, that is, without being confined to any particular thing as what it qualifies; but denoting the general exhibition of the quality denoted, in whatever the nature of the quality itself and the circumstances of the case will permit to possess it. See section 19.

OF PREPOSITIONS.

LVII. When the relation which one thing bears to another is expressed by a separate word, that word will be what is called a *preposition.* 'The bird is *on* the tree;' here 'on' points out the relation between the 'bird' and the 'tree,' 'the bird' is 'on' it, not off it. 'The bird is *in* the cage;' in this sentence, *in* marks the relation between 'the bird,' and 'the cage,' or the way in which they stand towards each other; the one is *in* the *other,* the bird *in* the cage. To subjoin a *list* would be to tempt the learner not to exercise his judgment.

LVIII. When a preposition has no word after it, as 'tree' is after 'on,' and 'cage' after 'in', in the sentences given above, it is by grammarians called an adverb. But for this there seems to be no good reason. Is it not the same *down* we have in each of the following expressions? 'He ran *down*;' 'He ran *down* the hill?' And if so, why should it be called an adverb in the former? The only difference is that, in the sentence, 'He ran down,' 'down' is used absolutely: 'he ran down', in reference to whatever the circumstances of the case would admit; he bore that relation, not to 'the hill' or any other particular object solely, but to every thing to which his situation would allow him to bear it.

OF CONJUNCTIONS.

LIX. The words by the use of which we join together, what two or more words or sentences express, are called *conjunctions*. 'Reading *and* writing are most useful acquirements;' in this sentence, 'and' joins together 'reading' and 'writing;' it is therefore a conjunction. When a conjunction marks *union* between the things which it brings together, it is called a *copulative conjunction*; when it marks *disunion*, it is called *disjunctive*. This distinction may, or may not, be attended to.

And, both, because, for, if, that, are copulative conjunctions.

Or, either, nor, neither, but, lest, though, *though, unless, than*, are disjunctive con-

junctions. There are also other words which some refer to the class of conjunctions.

XL.—*Both*, though given above, is strictly an adjective. In such situations as the following, it is always called an adjective;—'*Both* men;' but the use of the word is exactly the same when it is called a conjunction; as, '*Both* James and John;' that is, 'Both' persons, the two together, James and John. *For* is a proposition when used as follows: 'He works *for* his wages.' *For* is called a conjunction in such sentences as this, 'Forgive them, *for* they know not what they do." Strictly considered, it is always a preposition.

That is called a conjunction, when used as in the following sentences; "Thou knowest *that* I love thee." "Study to do your own business, and to work with your own hands, *that* ye may have lack of nothing." 'The boy is so diligent *that* he improves daily.' The learner may remember that notice was before taken of *that* as an adjective, and as a relative. It is an adjective in this sentence, 'I know *that* man;' it is a relative in the following, 'The man *that* I saw yesterday met me to day.' Though these distinctions may be convenient, it is really always an adjective. *Since* is by some called a conjunction, when used thus;—*Since* it must be so, I submit. It is a preposition when thus used;—'*Since* the beginning. 'I have not seen him *since* last week;' 'Our friendship commenced a long time *since*.' It is properly always a preposition.

OF INTERJECTIONS.

LXI. Words used in the exclamator expression of emotion, or feeling, are call

interjections. Of these, there are but few. Alas! ah! O! are of this description.

LXII.—We have now considered all the classes into which words are divided. They are called *parts of speech;* and are nine in number, namely, nouns, articles, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, participles, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections.

By the time the learner is come this length he should be able to distinguish them with little difficulty. Referring words to the classes to which they belong, and giving a proper account of them, is called *parsing,* and in exercises of this nature, it may be useful to attend to the following directions:—

Nouns. When the word under consideration is found to be a *noun,* (Sec. 1.) after mentioning that it is so, let the learner tell its *number,* (Sec. 3.) its *gender,* (Sec. 13) and its case, (Sec. 15, 16.) The gender will be most profitably specified, by stating the one of the third personal pronouns, (*he, she, it,*) which would be used for it. If the noun in question be in the plural, let the singular be told, and if it be in the singular, let the plural be told, and in either case, the rule for forming the plural given (Sec. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12.)

After Syntax has been studied, let him assign the reason for the case of it.

Articles. If the word of which an account is to be given be an *article,* let the learner say whether it is the *definite,* or *indefinite,* with what noun it is connected, whether it points it out in a general, or particular sense, and, if it be *a* or *an,* why the one of them is used, and not the other. Sec. 17.

Adjectives. When again the word is an adjective, (Sec. 18, 19,) let it be stated in what degree it is

(Sec. 20,) and what noun it qualifies; let the learner be also prepared to tell how it is compared, (Sec. 20, 21, 22, 23.)

Pronouns. In the case of *pronouns*, (Sec. 24,) let the *number*, *gender*, and *case* (Sec. 26, 27, 28,) be told; and also for what noun the pronoun stands, (Sec. 24.) I see no occasion to mention the gender, but of the third personal pronouns, (Sec. 25.) The reason of its being in the case in which it is found is to be stated as is to be done in regard to nouns.

Verbs. In regard to verbs, (Sec. 37,) let it be told, whether the one in question is active or neuter, (Sec. 54,) in what mood it is, (Sec. 41, 42, 43, 44, 45,) in what tense, (Sec. 39,) in what number, and in what person, (Sec. 40;) also what is nominative to it, (Sec. 38.)

Participles. If the word of which an account is to be given be a *participle.* (Sec. 46) after mentioning this, let the learner say whether it is the *present* or *past*, of what verb it is a participle, and with what noun it is joined.

In regard to other parts of speech, they are merely to be named, except only that it ought to be told to what *verb*, *adjective*, or *adverb*, the word in question is joined, if it be an *adverb*; (Sec. 55) and if it be a *conjunction.* (Sec. 59) what it couples; if a *preposition* (Sec. 57) it may be told what it governs, or that it is without a *regimen*, (Sec. 56, 58.)

LXIII.—We shall now give a specimen of parsing for which we may take the following passage:—

'Every person to whom the Scriptures are sent ought to study them, and get acquainted with their *contents*: but, alas! how many neglect them!"

What is within () ought to be omitted till learner is acquainted with the principles of Syn

far as the case under consideration for the time will require. What follows the word *answer*, is to be given only in reply to questions put by the teacher, or supposed to be put, if the learner be studying by himself.

'Every,' an adjective, qualifying 'person,' *answer*—it is not compared—'person,' a noun, he or she, singular, (nominative, it is nominative to the verb ought) *answer*—the plural is *persons*, formed by adding *s* to the singular: 'to' a preposition;—'whom,' a relative pronoun, (singular, objective,) 'person,' is its antecedent, ('person' is singular;)—'the', the definite article, pointing out 'Scriptures' in a particular sense;—'Scriptures,' a noun, they, plural, (nominative, it is, nominative to the verb 'are,') *answer*—the singular is *Scripture*, it, the plural is formed by adding *s*;—'are,' a verb neuter, indicative, present, (plural, third person,) nominative 'Scriptures,' (it is plural and third person, because its nominative is so,) *answer*—'Scriptures' is third person, because *spoken of*;—'sent,' a participle, the past, of the verb *to send*, it is joined to 'Scriptures,'—*answer*, it is the past participle, and not the past tense indicative, because it marks 'the Scriptures' as having the action of *sending* done to them, not as having done it themselves;—'Ought,' a verb, indicative, present, (singular, third person,) nominative 'person,' *answer*—it is singular and third person, because 'person' is singular, and third person;—'to,' a preposition;—'Study,' a verb active, infinitive, present.—'Them,' third personal pronoun, neuter; plural, (objective,) put for 'Scriptures, *answer—the singular* of it here is *it*, *answer*—it is singu*lar, because it has also he* and *she*;—'and,' a conjunc*tion, coupling 'study'* and 'get;'—'get,' a verb active, *infinitive, present*;—'acquainted,' a participle, th*past, of the verb to* acquaint, joined to *himself* unde*stood*, [illegible] prepositi

'Their,' an adjective, qualifying 'contents;'—'contents,' a noun, they, plural, (objective, by the preposition with,)—*answer*—it has no singular in this sense; 'but,' a conjunction, coupling 'every person ought,' and 'how many neglect;'—'alas,' an interjection;—'how,' an adverb, joined to 'many;'—'many,' an adjective, positive degree, qualifying *persons* understood, *answer*—it is compared *many, more, most; much* also has *more, most;*—'neglect,' a verb active, indicative, present, (plural, third person,) nominative *persons* understood;—'them,' as before.

LXIV. We have now given what we intended on this part of grammar. We have been chiefly occupied with Etymology, or the part of grammar which treats of the various changes of form which words undergo, and the various characters which they assume in the same form. It treats also of their derivation: but this did not come within our plan, and has therefore been scarcely touched upon (see 31.) A few remarks are also interspersed connected with two other parts of grammar, termed Orthography and Prosody. The former of these treats of the nature and power of letters, and the just mode of combining them into syllables and words: the latter, of the pronunciation of words, and the combination of them in poetical composition. But in addition to Orthography, Etymology, and Prosody, there is another part of grammar, called Syntax. To this part we now proceed.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART II.

LXV. The part of grammar to which we now proceed is termed *Syntax* or *Construction*. The former of these terms is derived from the Greek, and made up of two words in that language, the one signifying *with*, *together*, the other, *putting in order*, or *arranging*; the latter term is of Latin origin, but of similar import. Agreeably to the signification of those words, the part of grammar which they are used to denote, treats of the *arranging together*, or *combining* of words into sentences, or of *sentence-making*, as Mr Cobbett expresses it. From this explanation of the nature and object of Syntax, its great importance must be obvious, and the learner ought to require no other admonition than this addresses to him, to enter upon the study of this department of grammar with the most anxious diligence.

Before I attempt to state and explain the principles *of Syntax, it* may be of advantage briefly to advert to *the source from* which these principles are derived. *With this view*, let it be observed, that by the cases of *nouns and* pronouns is to be understood the changes *f form which* they undergo, and the different cha-

racters which they assume in the same form, according as it is the simple idea of the object signified that is to be expressed, or the idea of it in a particular state or situation. Each of these cases accordingly is used, when the idea which it conveys is to be expressed, and is used simply on that account. This is also the case in regard to the different forms of other parts of speech. Grammarians, however, instead of defining and pointing out the idea which the different cases, &c. express, have in drawing up rules of Syntax or Construction, generally followed the plan of describing the relative situations, or the connexion with other words of a specified character, in which a word, in a particular case or form, must be placed; and assigning its being so placed as the circumstance by which the use of it in the case or form in question is regulated. That rules could thus be drawn from the mere words, or from what may be called the topography of a sentence, is to be accounted for by the circumstance, that the other ideas with which any particular idea can unite, and form a train or a portion of a train of thought, must be expressed by words, which, from the character of the class to which they belong, as well as from their individual signification, are suitable for that purpose, and with these of course, and with these alone, the word denoting the idea in question, will be connected by syntactial situation.

The following is a rule formed upon the plan which we have described. "When two nouns come together signifying different things, the first is put in the possessive case." There are here specified two circumstances of relative situation on which the putting of *a noun in the possessive case* is made to depend. The *noun put in the* possessive and another noun signifying a different thing must come together; and, furth

the noun put in the possessive must stand *first*. Now these are mere adventitious circumstances attending the use of the possessive, and to assign such circumstances as that on which its use depends is like making a man's shadow the cause of his presence. And, besides, what will be the relative local situation of a noun when it is used and placed in a sentence, will not be discovered in time for determining in what case that noun is to be put, for this must be determined before it is used, and consequently before it has any situation at all. But though it might be discovered by a troublesome exertion of mind, yet it is not in this way that we naturally come to a decision what case we are to employ. This decision is founded upon a perception, that a particular case is the one which expresses the idea that we wish to convey. In speaking or writing, what we have to do is to express certain ideas, and not to marshal words according to some principles of affinity, and a fitness for combination in themselves, as such rules of Syntax as the one we are considering would lead us to think. And the ideas thus to be expressed do not merely suggest (so to speak) certain words in their uninflected state, and then leave it to be determined in what form these words are to be employed by considerations arising from the nature of the words themselves; there is also in the ideas what requires that the suitable words be employed in certain states of inflection, or that certain forms of them be used. Why then tell us that "when two nouns signifying different things come together, the *first of them is* put in the possessive case?" Would not *the idea to be* expressed require that the possessive *should be used*, though there were no other use *the language?*

There are some other rules that regard inflin

words, and can be of use only to persons who employ these words, without knowing their meaning. Such employment of words cannot be rendered *proper* by rules, for it is inconsistent with the nature and intention of speaking and writing. We cannot communicate what we mean by the use of words of which we do not know the meaning.

We are also usually taught in rules of Syntax, that certain words *govern* others, or exercise some kind of sway or influence over them by which they are put in certain cases. There is nothing of the kind. Every word discharges its own duties, without at all molesting or interfering with its neighbours in the discharge of theirs.

These rules remind me of a treatise entitled *artificial versifying*, "shewing any one, though of ordinary capacity, that can write and read, though he understand not a word of Latin, how to make thousands of Hexameter and Pentameter verses, which will be good Latin, true verse, and perfect sense, and that in two hours time!

The attentive reader will easily see how these remarks apply to Rules 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, &c. in Mr Lennie's grammar, under the head of Syntax. In fact the leaven is descernible in all of them.

RULE I.

LXVI. When a thing is to be simply named; or just the idea of the thing itself is *to be* expressed, without any state or condi*tion in* which it might be placed being com*bined* with it in this idea, the noun or

noun used to denote it—will be in the nominative case; as, '*John writes.*'

It may at first be not obvious that the description we have just given of the import and use of the nominative case, applies to the above example. 'John' is in the state of acting, it will be said. But it may be seen that this, though intimated by the rest of the sentence, does not enter into the idea which is conveyed by the word 'John,' or is not embodied with the object denoted by that word in the idea entertained of it. In reading the sentence 'John writes,' let the learner stop when he says 'John,' and he will perceive that it simply conveys to his mind the idea of the object denoted, without that of any state whatever.

Agreeably to the above description, the nominative is used—1st, when the thing expressed is the subject of a verb in the indicative, subjunctive, or imperative mood; as, 'The *horse* runs;' *I* am busy;' '*he* reads;'

2d. When the thing denoted is simply mentioned as the subject, though pointed out as being or doing by a participle, and not by a verb in a finite mood as in the above case; as, 'The *day* being cold, he had on a cloak;' when thus used, it is called the *absolute* case. The objective is sometimes used as the absolute case.

3d. When the thing denoted is addressed or *called upon*; as, "Hear, O Israel;" *He called* as at other times, Samuel Samuel"

RULE II.

A verb expresses action or being in reference only to a subject in the same number and person in which it is itself. *Writest*, for example, expresses the action of writing in reference only to a subject in the singular and second person; this is the import of that form: it would therefore be improper to say *I, he, we, you*, they *writest*; we say, '*Thou* writest,' 'He writes,' 'I, we, you, they write.'

RULE III.

The possessive case is employed, when the thing denoted is a possessor, or when the idea of it, in the state of possessing, is to be conveyed; as, '*John's* book is new; "Man's chief end is to glorify God."

It will be observed, that the noun or pronoun in the possessive case stands generally before the name of what is possessed.

1st. When the two last syllables of the noun in the possessive case end with a hissing sound, and the following noun begins with a hissing sound, it is usual to omit the *'s* after the apostrophe; as, 'For *conscience' sake*, otherwise the apostrophe and *s* are to be retained.

2d. When two or more possessors of the *same thing* are mentioned, the apostrophe *and s* are annexed to the last only;

a circumlocution, the apostrophe
joined to the last word of the c
tion; as, 'For David thy fath
'The provost of Glasgow's house.'

RULE IV.

When the thing denoted is th
an action or the like, or when it i
or *limit* to which an action or so
the nature of action goes forth, t
pronoun employed will be in th
case; 'I met *him* to day?

1st. When the thing denoted i
of an action, there will be an acti
pressed, or understood to express

has sometimes no word to express it. It is only implied; as, 'Edinburgh is forty *miles* distant from Glasgow;' 'He rode several *miles*;' 'He came last *night*;' 'The book is worth two *shillings*;' 'I saw that man several *times*:' i. e. *up to* '40 miles;' *for* 'several miles;' *on* last night;' *up* to '2 shillings;' at 'several times.'

REMARK I.

It must be obvious, from what has been stated, that whatever number of nouns, or pronouns, or of both together, is used for expressing the same thing in the same state, they must all be in the case, which, from its import, is suited to express a thing in that state, and, consequently, in the same case; as, "*Manlius*, the *consul*, commanded the army;" '*David* the *son* of Jesse was appointed *king* of Israel.'

REMARK II.

It need scarcely be remarked, that the *number* of a verb depends only upon the number of individuals of which its subject consists. When only one individual forms *its subject*, whatever number of words be *used to* express it, the verb will be singular *and* when the subject consists of two or m

individuals, the verb will be plural, whether these individuals be expressed by one noun, or pronoun, in that plural number, or each of them by a different word; as, '*David was* anointed king by Samuel,' '*David* the son of Jesse *was* anointed king by Samuel;' 'The *boys were* busy,' '*Peter* and *John* were busy;' 'Either Peter or *John was*, &c.'

Accordingly when a noun of multitude, or collective noun is used, to convey the idea of the different individuals composing the *multitude* or *collection* separately viewed, the verb to which they are a subject will be in the plural; but when it is used to convey the idea of these individuals viewed as a body, the verb will be in the singular; as, "My people *do* not hear;" "There is a people come out of Egypt."

I may just observe, that when the subject consists of several individuals expressed by different words, and one of them speaks of itself, they form the first person plural; when none of them speaks of itself, but one of them is spoken to, they form the second person plural: as, 'Peter and I were in the garden;' i. e. 'we were, &c.'

REMARK III.

It arises from the ideas to be expressed *that other parts* of speech are sometimes

used as if they were nouns or pronouns, so also is a part of a sentence; as "From *within*, out of the heart, proceed evil thoughts;" "*To punish the just* is not good."

REMARK IV.

When the action expressed by a verb does not pass from the actor to an object, it is obviously improper to use a noun or pronoun to express any thing as its object; as, 'He repented *him* of his design,' which ought to be 'He repented of his design.'

RULE V.

A verb is used in the subjunctive mood when the subject is to be pointed out as being or doing under circumstances of contingency, with the being or doing of something else depending upon the issue; as, 'If he *do* promise, he will certainly perform.' This would be said before it was known whether he would promise or not; but after he did promise it would be said, 'If he does promise, he will &c.' (Sec. 43.)

REMARK V.

The infinitive mood is used when being or *doing is to* be expressed according to its import. (Sec. 45.) This indeed is the regulating principle in the use of every mood; and or

In regard to participles
some noun or pronoun like adjecti
learner should exercise his judge
fully to distinguish the past parti
the past tense, when the former is
with the latter in form. (Sec. 46,

REMARK VII.

With respect to pronouns, care
taken to employ them so that it
appear to what noun they refer.
collocation is to be strictly atten

"In order to chastise the Latins, th
Manlius Jorquatus and his colleague
were sent by the senate to invade *their*
is not obvious to what 'their' refers.

REMARK VIII.

Those also which follow deserve attention :—

Though he was rich, *yet* for our sakes he became poor.

I will *either* send it, *or* bring it myself.

Neither he *nor* his brother went.

Whether he will do it *or* not, I cannot tell.

She is *as* amiable *as* her sister.

As the stars, *so* shall thy seed be. *As* the one dieth, *so* dieth the other.

Pompey was not *so* great a general *as* Cæsar.

He was *so* fatigued *that* he could scarcely move.

REMARK IX.

In the use of adverbs care must be taken to assign them such a station or place in the sentence that it will be seen with ease and certainty to what words they refer. Errors are very frequently committed from inattention to this. We have an instance in the following sentence from Dr. Johnson's Rambler. "Thoughts are *only* criminal, when they are first chosen, and then voluntarily continued." The writer's meaning is that 'Thoughts are criminal only when they are first chosen, &c.' then and then only, and therefore the 'only' ought to be placed before the 'when.' What the Doctor expresses is that 'thoughts are nothing more than criminal.'

REMARK X.

The participle present, when coming after *a preposition* does not refer to any noun o *pronoun.* It is used absolutely ; as, "Th *vere* startled *at hearing* a noise."

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the proper placing in written composition of certain marks or points intended to assist in discovering the meaning, and corresponding to some pauses in delivery.

(,) Comma.	(:) Colon.
(;) Semicolon.	(.) Period *or* full point.

COMMA.

A comma is used to separate the simple members of a compound sentence; to separate the word or words denoting what is addressed from what is said; to separate two or more nouns, or other words of the same part of speech with each other, coming together without a conjunction between them; two words of the same part of speech with a conjunction between them are not separated by a comma, but if there are three words a comma is used to separate them; words following in pairs are separated on the same principle as single words; phrases thrown into a sentence for explanation or bringing out the meaning more fully are separated from the rest by commas; explanatory words are separated in the same manner; when the verb to be is followed by an infinitive or adjective, and the subject of it is expressed by several

words, it may be separated by a comma either from the preceding or following part of the sentence, it may also be separated from both; a remarkable or proverbial expression is separated by a comma from the words by which it is introduced; when a verb is understood a comma may be inserted where it would be placed. "He poureth water into a bason, and began to wash the disciples' feet, and to wipe them with a towel." "Hast thou not known me, *Philip*." 'He is a well-educated, sensible person.' 'He is a well-educated and sensible person.' 'He is a well-educated, sensible, and religious person.' 'True religion is cheerful and mild, serious and uncompromising, progressive and persevering.' "Naaman, *captain of the host of the king of Syria*, was a great man." "The duty which the command of God imposes upon every one who hears the gospel, is to believe in Christ.' "Marvel not that I said unto thee, *Ye must be born again*." 'Misery arises from vice, happiness, from virtue.'

There are also other cases in which the comma is used, but with these and the whole of punctuation the learner will become best acquainted by observing the practice of good authors.

SEMICOLON.

The semicolon is used to separate parts a compound sentence not so closely connected as those separated by the use of the comma. "Straws swim upon the surface but pearls lie at the bottom."

COLON.

The colon is used to separate parts of sentence less connected than those separate by a semicolon. It is used after a membe of a sentence complete in itself, but followe by a supplemental remark; before a quota tion introduced; after a complete membe of a sentence, followed by a supplementa clause; a semicolon is used when the supple mental clause begins with a conjunction "Do not flatter yourselves with the hope o happiness: there is no such thing in th world." "The Scriptures give us an amiabl representation of the character of the Deit in these words: God is love." "Do not flat ter yourselves with the hope of happiness *for* there is no such thing in the world."

PERIOD.

The period is used at the termination of *complete sentence*. A sentence is frequentl *regarded complete*, though the sense requir *that the next* begin with But, And, He

and other words of the same character. "Then cried they all again, saying, Not this man, but Barabbas. Now Barabbas was a robber."

The period is also used to mark abbreviation; as, M. P. for member of parliament.

The learner should be acquainted also with the following marks.

Interrogation (?) intimates that a question is asked.

Admiration or *Exclamation* (!) marks the expression of sudden emotion.

Parenthesis ( ) encloses in the body of a sentence a clause containing some necessary or useful remark.

Apostrophe (') indicates that a letter is left out; as, *'Tis* for *it is.*

Caret (ʌ) is placed where a word which is interlined was left out in writing. When placed over a vowel it is called a *circumflex*, and denotes that the syllable is long; as, Euphrâtes.

Hyphen, (-) at the end of a line, shows that the rest of the word, with a part of which that line ends, is at the beginning of the next line. It also connects the parts of a compound word; as *Son-in-law.*

Diaeresis (··) denotes the division of a di-thong into two syllables; as, aër-

Section (§) divides a discourse or chapter into smaller portions.

Paragraph (¶) indicates the beginning of a new subject.

Crotchets or *Brackets* ([ ]) enclose a word or sentence which is intended to supply a deficiency, or correct a mistake, or which is to be explained, or they enclose the explanation itself.

Index (☞) points out something remarkable.

Quotation (" ") shows that a passage is quoted in the words of the author.

Brace { connects words which refer to a common term, or three lines in poetry called a *triplet*.

Breve (˘) marks a short syllable.

Dash (—) marks a long syllable. It denotes also an unexpected turn in the sentiment, a pause required by the signification, or that the member which precedes it has a reference to all the rest of the sentence.

Asterisk (*), *Obelisk* (†), *Double-dagger* (‡), *Parallels* (||), the letters of the alphabet, and figures refer to some note at the bottom of the page or on the margin.

Two or three asterisks denote the omission o' *some letters* or words in such er--- *sions as the* writer does not wish t *fully*.

lipsis (——) denotes that letters are o as, *K—g* for *King*.

OF CAPITALS.

The first word of every sentence, proper names and adjectives formed from them, the appellations of the Deity, the first word of every line in poetry, and the first word of a quotation preceded by a colon, begin with a capital letter. Common nouns also when the thing denoted is personified begin with a capital. The pronoun *I* and interjection *O* are written in capitals.

FINIS.

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